THE NAYA-KARNIKA

A WORK ON JAINA LOGIC

BY
SRI VINAYA VIJAYA MAHARAJ

Edited with Introduction, English Translation and critical notes

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CONTENTS.

										I	AGI
Preface		•					•				v
Introduction							,				1
Author's Bi	ograph	ical	Sket	ch							27
Text with F	English	Tra	nsla	tion	and	Critical	Not	es. E	tc.		30

PREFACE

THE Naya-Váda, or philosophy of standpoints, is a unique feature of Jaina metaphysics, and has been fully dealt with by some of the great ácháryas of the past. The text of the present work—the Naya Karniká—is by Śri Vinaya Vijaya Upádhyáya, a famous Logician of the 17th century A. D., and has been selected for translation on account of its general freedom from tiresome technicalities as well as for its brevity.

The Naya-Váda, it is to be observed, is an essential department of knowledge by itself, and bears the same relation to philosophy as logic does to thought, or grammar to language, or speech. I have ventured on a general outline of the subject in the introduction for the benefit of the non-Jaina readers, though the observations of one so little acquainted, like myself, with the basic principles of the rules of Thought, laid down by the Giant-Philosophers of the Naya-Vâda, are hardly likely to throw much light on the subject.

I avail myself of the present opportunity to acknowledge my indebtedness to the authors of the

different works, such as 'The First Principles of Jaina Philosophy,' 'The History of The Medieval School of Indian Logic,' 'An Introduction to Jainism,' etc., which I have consulted for the purposes of translation. I have also derived useful help from 'The Speeches and Writings of Mr. V. R. Gandhi,' who attended the Parliament of Religions at Chicago, U.S.A., as the representative of Jainism.

My sincere thanks are specially due to Mr. Champat Rai Jain, Bar-at-Law, for his valuable help in the preparation of this book and to my friend Kumar Devendra Prasadji without whose kindly help the book would never have seen the light of day.

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INTRODUCTION.

THE philosophy of Nayas (standpoints) is an integral part of Jaina Metaphysics, and Jaina philosophers have always laid the greatest emphasis on its proper comprehension. It is maintained that no one who is not fully acquainted with this department of philosophy is likely to make any real progress in knowledge, and none whatever in religion, however much he might make himself familiar with other matters. To estimate the true value of this statement it is necessary to determine the nature of knowledge itself, in the first instance.

The object of knowledge is to make us acquainted with the nature of things, so that when we know a thing fully we are said to have knowledge of it. Now, knowledge arises in one of the two following ways:

(1) it is either perceived directly, or (2) is inferred from facts of observation or record. The first kind, called *Pratyaks'a*, includes the *kevalajnana* (Omniscience) of the *Siddhátman'*, the *Manahprayaya*²

^{1.} A Perfect or Deified Soul.

^{2.} Knowledge of the thoughts of others.

and Avadhi of the Muni², and the sense-perception of the ordinary living beings in the world. The second category comprises mostly what has been called the indirect, or mediate, knowledge. Leaving aside the first class of knowledge with which we have no concern in the present work, we notice that the indirect, or mediate, knowledge itself is of two kinds, namely, (1) that which is heard from others, and (2) that which is intellectually inferred. It is in respect of these two kinds of non-immediate knowledge that the greatest care is to be observed in accepting the statements of others or the deductions of our own reason.

A number of tests have been laid down by the wise for the purpose of testing the accuracy of both these kinds of indirect knowledge. One of these tests, and the one with which we are mostly concerned at present, is the relativity of knowledge. Obviously, everything exists in relation to a number of other things, and is liable to be influenced by them. Hence, knowledge to be complete must describe it with reference to its relations with other things.

Similarly, when things are described by men they are described generally from some particular point of

^{1.} A kind of telepathy.

^{2.} A Jaina ascetic.

view, though some people are led to imagine this one-sided description to be exhaustive, as, for instance, is the case with Advaitism which adheres to the standpoint of qualities alone and neglects that of evolution. This kind of knowledge, though true from the particular point of view from which it is arrived at, is certainly not true from any other.

It is thus obvious that no piece of information, judgment, or scriptural text, can be relied upon to impart full knowledge of a thing, unless it is comprehensive enough to embrace the various descriptions thereof obtained from the different points of view. Jainism, therefore, warns us against falling a victim to imperfect information and being misled by it. Hence the importance which is attached to the philosophy of standpoints by the Jaina Metaphysicians.

The oft-quoted parable of the blindmen and the elephant is admissible here to illustrate the point under consideration. Each of these persons, desirous of knowing what an elephant was like, touched and felt a separate part of its body, and went home pleased with the information they derived concerning its form. They then sat down to compare notes, and soon discovered that there was no agreement among them as to the form of the animal. The man who had only touched its leg described it

as a huge column, the one who had felt the ear as a winnowing fan, and so forth. They soon came to words and then to blows; and still no one was willing to admit that he was in the wrong. At last, there appeared another man on the scene who was not blind, and he was with difficulty able to pacify them and settle their disputes by convincing them of their partial knowledge.

The lesson to be learnt from this instructive parable is that unless all the different aspects of a thing have been enquired into and studied, the partial knowledge based on any one aspect alone is liable to lead us into error and conflict with others.

All the confusion of thought which is prevailing in the world is thus the outcome of inexhaustive research, and of the acceptance of a part for the whole. A single instance would suffice to satisfy the reader that most, even if not all, of our disputes only betray the pig-headedness of the blindmen of the parable in ourselves. For a long time past a keen controversy has been raging among philosophers as to the nature of will, some holding that it is free, others denying it. As a matter of fact, both parties are right, but only from their respective standpoints. If we approach the question from the point of view of the nature of will, that is to say, in respect of its

natural qualities, we must, with Bergson, arrive at the conclusion that it is free, but if we look at it as regards its manifested appearance, that is to say, from the point of view of evolution, it is certainly subject to predeterminism of *karmas* (actions). It is thus clear that both the parties to the controversy have only got hold of partial truth, and are trying to passit off for absolute wisdom. The truth is neither in the view of the one nor in that of the other, but in a perfect synthesis of both, since will is free by nature, but liable to predeterminism of *karmas* as an incarnating ego.

It is thus evident that the greatest care must be taken in accepting all one-sided statements of facts, whether they come from gods or men. It must be remembered that our language makes it impossible for us to describe things in all their aspects at one and the same time, and, for that reason, is liable to-lead us into error to a considerable extent. He who would avoid falling into the pitfalls of error must, therefore, first of all, try to understand and master the philosophy of Nayas.

Jainism aims, from the very commencement, at a systematic classification of the subject-matter of knowledge, and divides the philosophical standpoint into two main heads, the Nis'chaya and the Vyavahára.

Of these, the former deals with the permanent qualities, hence, the essential nature of things about which there can be no possibility of doubt, and which remains true under all circumstances, conditions and states. For this reason, it is called the Nis'chaya, i.e., the natural or certain. The latter, however, only deals with things not with reference to their real or essential nature, but with respect to their utility, or non-natural states and conditions. The statement,—'This is a jar of clay'—is an illustration of the Nis'chaya Naya, while, 'This is a jar of butter,' is true only from the Vyavahára, or the practical, point of view.

Nis'chaya Naya is again divided into two kinds, namely, (1) the Dravyárthika and (2) the Paryáyárthika. The former of these is the substantive point of view, since it describes things with reference to their general qualities or substances. The latter is the standpoint of evolution and gives prominence to forms or conditions, which souls and matter assume from time to time, in the course of evolution. From the Dravyárthika point of view, it is correct to say that souls are all alike, since they are made of the same substance and have the same nature, but from that of the Paryáyárthika Naya they differ in respect of their special qualities, which have

evolved out in the course of transmigration or evolution.

The Dravyárthika Naya is further sub-divided into three classes, Naigama, Samgraha, and Vyavahára. The Paryáyárthika is also sub-divided into Rijusûtra, S'abda, Samabhirûdha, and Evambhûta. According to some ácháryas (philosophers), the Rijusûtra is to be treated as a sub-division of the Dravyárthika Naya, but this is only a matter of classification and has no bearing on the general aspect of the subject.

It is not to be supposed that there are only seven Nayas or standpoints of view: there are many subdivisions, and, according to the author of the original text, their number is seven hundred. But as the principal ones are the seven described here, it would serve no useful purpose to enumerate the others.

We may now proceed to consider these seven principal Nayas separately.

(1) Naigama, from na, not, eko, one, and gama, certainty, hence the non-distinguished, is a point of view which does not distinguish between the general'

¹ The word Vyavahāra occurs twice in this classification, firstly, as one of the two main divisions of philosophical standpoint, and, secondly, as a sub-division of the Dravyārthīka Naya. In the first case it means the practical standpoint, and in the second the particular as defined later on.

and special qualities of a thing. For instance, when the word bamboo is used, a number of general as well as special qualities are at once referred to without a distinction being made among them. The bamboo tree has a number of qualities which are common to it and other trees, and, in addition, it is possessed of a number of special qualities which are peculiar to it alone, and are not to be found in the remaining members of the genus tree. The word bamboo, therefore, at once refers the mind to a large number of qualities, some of which are the special property of the bamboo alone, while the rest are common to it and all other trees in general.

Since it is not possible to separate these two kinds of qualities in an actual bamboo, the particular qualities thereof remain undistinguished from those common to all the trees in existence. This kind of description is, therefore, called the non-distinguished. It is not to be supposed that no distinction whatever is implied in the Naigama Naya, inasmuch as the mere mention of the word bamboo is sufficient to exclude all other trees from consciousness. What is meant is only this, that as the concept bamboo is equivalent to the concept tree plus a number of special qualities added to it, the word bamboo at once calls to mind a class of concepts in which the qualities of a tree are

. intermingled with those of a bamboo without distinction or demarcation among them.

- (2) Samgraha is the description of a thing from the standpoint of its general qualities alone. It is the standpoint of genus. For instance, when the word jîva (soul) is uttered, it refers to all kinds of jîvas, without distinguishing among them, in respect of type, form, etc., etc.
- (3) Uyavahára, or the particular, is that point of view which makes a distinction between a genus and its species.

The feature of distinction between the Samgraha and the Uyavahara lies in the fact that, while the former takes into consideration only the general qualities of a thing, the latter deals only with the particular attributes thereof. The Samgraha is the standpoint of a genus, but the Uyavahara that of species.

(4) Rijusûtra is the standpoint which only takes into account the present form of a thing, without reference to its past or future aspects. When a statement is made from this standpoint it is not to be taken as an absolute truth under all conditions, since the speaker only confines his observations to the present condition of the thing he describes, without troubling himself as to its past and future possibilities

or aspects. The Rijusûtra recognises nothing but the thing itself as it appears at the moment, and has no concern with its name (náma), or image (sthápana), or with the causes which bring it into existence (dravya). A certain class of philosophers attach great importance to this point of view, and maintain that one ought to consider things only as they appear at the present moment, and should not worry oneself over their past or future.

This view is certainly not likely to result in the perfection of knowledge or happiness by any means, being only confined to a very limited aspect of things.

(5) The S'abda, or the verbal standpoint, observes the distinctions of gender, number, case, tense, etc., in synonymous words. For instance, the words Dárá, Bháryá and Kalatra differ in their grammatical gender, though they all signify wife. We may, therefore, say that the S'abda Naya is the standpoint of the grammarian who distinguishes between the meaning of words, on the ground of gender, number, etc. According to some writers, the S'abda Naya ignores the differences of synonymous words and treats them as if they all signified identically the same thing. This seems to be the view of the author of the original text of this work.

- between words on etymological grounds. For instance, the words Indra, S'akra and Purandara, though of the same gender and applicable to the rulers of the Heaven-worlds, yet differ in meaning from one another, S'akra signifying strong, Indra, the possessor of many divine powers, and Purandara, the destroyer of the cities of the enemy. The difference between the S'abda and the Sams'abhirûḍha Nayas seems to lie in the fact that, while the former is the standpoint of a grammarian, the latter is that of an etymologist who tries to trace words to their roots.
- (7) The Evambhûta Naya is that mode of comprehending things which takes into account their special functions or activities, and describes them by such words as are justified by their actual functions or activities. For instance, a pujári (worshipper) is called a pujári when he performs pujá (worship). Similarly, only a strong man is entitled to be called S'akra. Indra can be called Purandara only when he is engaged in the act of destroying the cities of enemies, and so forth. This Naya is also the standpoint of etymologists.

As the fallacies of these different kinds of Nayas throw considerable light on the nature of the Nayas themselves, they may also be mentioned here. There

are the following seven fallacies, corresponding to the seven Nayas:—

- (1) Naigamábhása is the fallacy of the Naigama Naya, and consists in making a separation between the general and special properties of things, e.g., to speak of the existence and consciousness of soul as if they could be separated from one another.
- (2) Samgrahábhása, the fallacy of the Samgraha Naya, occurs when we describe the generic properties alone as constituting a thing. This gives rise to confusion of thought, because the general qualities alone can never constitute an actual object. For instance, the general qualities of a tree only give us the idea of tree-ness, never an actual tree. The latter will have to be some particular kind of tree—an oak, a mango, a nimb, or the like—and will, therefore, possess its own special qualities along with those of a tree in general. Whenever this fallacy has crept into a system of philosophy, the harvest of the scholar has been only a whirlwind of wordy abstractions instead of a knowledge of things as they exist in nature.
- (3) Uyavahárábhása lies in a wrong selection of species, as, for instance, is the case with Charvakism which makes wrong distinctions between substances and qualities, etc.

- (4) Rijusûtrúbhása occurs when permanence, hence reality, of things is altogether denied, as is the case in the philosophy of Buddhism.
- (5) S'abdübhüsa, the verbal fallacy, occurs when we ignore the distinguishing features of the S'abda Naya and deal with empty words as if they were applicable without reference to time, number, gender, etc., etc.
- (6) Samabhirûdhábhása consists in treating the words Indra, S'akra, Purandara, etc., as synonymous.
- (7) Evambhûtábhasa lies in making the existence of a thing depend on the performance of the special function with reference to which its has been given a particular name, e.g., to say that a pujári is a non-entity because he is no longer engaged in performing puja, is fallacious.

From the above classification of Nayas it is clear that the first four of them relate to things (váchya) and the last three to words (vachaka). The former, strictly speaking, are the true standpoints of philosophy, since the latter are meant specially for linguists, grammarians and etymologists alone. But since the S'ástras (scriptures) are couched in words only, and since the selection of words depends on the rules of grammar and is determined by their

derivations, the last three standpoints have also to be taken into consideration, in the interpretation of scriptural text.

The above is necessarily a brief explanation of a subject which is capable of an enormous amplitude. If the reader is desirous of studying it fully, he should make himself familiar with works such as the Vis'e-sávas'yaka, the Naya-Chakra, etc., where the philosophy of Nayas is more elaborately and fully explained.

As a result of the foregoing analysis of the different kinds of standpoints, we may say that the Nayas constitute the very foundation of the science of Thought. They are not rules of logic as understood in its strict sense, but in a very much wider though simpler aspect. As Mr. A. B. Lathe points out (see 'An Introduction to Jainism,' p. 108):—

"Logic, as applied to our present subject, is not a term denoting formal laws of thought. It constitutes the essence of Jain philosophy, without an adequate conception of whose importance, it would be impossible to realize the place of Jainism in the philosophical systems of the world, and the contribution it has made to the progress of human thought. As will be indicated further on, Anekant Logic is

the doctrine which means to examine the very foundations of knowledge, and also to explain the autological problems that have beset philosophical speculations in all times. The value that Jainism itself attaches to this basis of its philosophy may appear extravagant to any superficial observer. It is asserted by a great Jain Acharya that this logic is as important as the Absolute Wisdom possessed by the Kevalin. It differs from the latter only in being 'indirect,' as distinguished from 'immediate' which is the characteristic of Absolute Wisdom. This loss caused by its being 'mediate' (Apratyaksha or Shruta) is fully made up by its exclusive capacity to demonstrate the truth of Absolute Wisdom to mankind. Thus Absolute Wisdom itself, not to speak of inferior degrees of knowledge, is baseless, without the Anekant Logic. Obviously, the reason of this is that this Logic is that which guarantees our capacity to know and provides us with criteria by which we should be able to test our knowledge. In one word, it may be called the 'method' of philosophy, or that instrument of thought by which Tattva-Inyan or philosophy is polished (Sanskrit). It bears therefore the all-comprehending sense that 'logic' is invested with in Hegel. It is in Jainism what the science of ideas is in Plato or the Metaphysics in Aristotle."

Coming to the place of Nayas in Jainism, it is to be observed that the most prominent feature of its philosophy is the quality of many-sidedness, the anekánta-vúda. If the reader has followed me thus far. he will have no difficulty in following me still further when I say that all one-sided systems of Thought are liable to error and inaccuracy because of their very one-sidedness. There are more aspects than one of each and everything in nature, and it is obvious that the system which deals, not with all such sides, but with only one of them, can have absolutely no claim to perfection or comprehensiveness of knowledge. Jainism avoids this one-sidedness of knowledge, and is enabled by the many-sidedness of its philosophy to deal effectively with all the moot points in their entirety. With the aid of its Anekánta method, it effectually disposes of all those hard problems of theology and metaphysics which have proved a fruitful source of error and dispute to the followers of all non-Jaina religions in the world.

This many-sidedness of the Jaina philosophy is the true secret of its irrefutable perfection, though modern Orientalists have hitherto only discovered it to be a feature of indefiniteness. If these gentlemen had taken the trouble to understand the primary basis of philosophy, they would not have failed to observe that all knowledge is only relative and has to be described from different points of view to avoid falling into the errors which abound in all departments of Absolutism. One can readily find an excuse for their error, especially as they are not philosophers, but linguists, laboriously trying to force the concepts and ideas of a perfect system of living Thought into the imperfect and rigid frames of modern speculation.

The absolute deliverance of the soul from the bondage of Karmas is the final goal of knowledge and the secret craving of every animate being. There is no religion, worth the name, which does not aspire and profess to secure it for its votaries. This is what Jesus of Nazareth referred to when he said: 'Be ye therefore perfect even as your Father which is in heaven is perfect' (Matthew, v. 48). This 'father-like' perfection is to be attained by knowledge, and knowledge alone, in the first instance. Even here we find Jesus giving out the plain truth in plain language. He said:

"Ye shall know the truth and the truth shall make you free."—John, viii. 32.

Knowledge of truth, then, is the means of the attainment of the perfection of gods and of freedom from the bondage of *Karmas*. The Bible is, however,

silent as to the things to be known, but Jainism points out that right knowledge (Samyak Inúna), right belief or faith (Samuak Dars'ana) and right conduct (Samyak Cháritra), combined together, constitute the path to Nirvána. Analysis shows that right conduct characterises only those beings who possess faith in its power to procure deliverance for the soul from the bondage of Karmas. Thus, no one who is devoid of right belief, or faith, can possibly realise the great ideal of perfection and bliss expressed by the simple word moks'a. Now, right belief depends on right knowledge, and cannot be thought of apart from it. Where knowledge is not made the foundation of faith, where reason does not endorse the formula of belief and where the germ of doubt is not destroyed by the fire of wisdom, nothing but confusion, bigotry and sin are to be found there; for the smothering of the voice of intellect can only give us fanatics of bigotry and prejudice; it can never enable men to acquire the wisdom of gods which shall make them free. Knowledge, and knowledge alone, then, is the door to power and freedom from bondage. But knowledge is not to be acquired by the perusal of scriptures. alone, since the scriptural text has to be understood and reconciled to one's own limited knowledge in the first instance, and where, as in the case of the

non-Jaina scriptures, the text is jumbled up regardless of the standpoint from which alone it is true, the necessity of reconciling its sense to the judgment of one's own intellect becomes a matter of the utmost degree of importance. Hence, the Naya-Váda is the touch-stone of the dogmatic pronouncements of all one-sided scriptures.

There are three kinds of scriptural text, called S'ruta Inána, namely, (1) Kunaya S'ruta, or Nauábhása S'ruta. (2) Naua S'ruta and (3) Sunava S'ruta or Suádváda S'ruta. Kunava S'ruta means one-sided knowledge only; Naya S'ruta is also one-sided knowledge, but it does not disregard the other sides of things, while Sunaya S'ruta, or Anekántaváda, also called the Suidvádaor Pramina S'ruta, recognizes all the sides of things. The qualities, or properties, of a thing are ascertained from its different aspects, and constitute its true knowledge. Sunaya or Pramána S'ruta, i.e., the Syádváda recognizes all of them; Nava S'ruta recognizes the one which has been ascertained from a particular standpoint, without denying the rest: but Kunaya, or Nayábhása, recognises only one of them, to the exclusion of the rest. True Naya always predicates one of the innumerable qualities of a thing, without denying the rest. If it deny the rest, or any

of the qualities not in consideration, at any particular moment of time, it becomes $\mathcal{N}ayabbasa$ —a fallacy, that is, a Naya, which appears to be correct, but is not so in fact. It is thus clear that no one who has not mastered the philosophy of $\mathcal{N}ayas$ and is not in a position to find out from which point of view a certain passage in the $S'ruta\ Jnana$ is true, is at all likely to benefit by the study of scriptures.

According to Jainism, the kind of knowledge which leads to the realisation of the great ideal of divine perfection, consists in the mastery of tattvas (principles) which are seven in number. They are:—

(1) Jîva, the living or animate substance, or essence, (2) Ajîva, the inanimate things, or substances, (3) Asrava, or the inflow of matter (karmas) into souls, or the causes of the bondage of jîvas, (4) bandha, the absorption of matter (the energy of Karmas) into, or the union of karmas with, the soul, (5) Samvara, the stopping of the inflow of matter into the soul, (6) Nirjará, the gradual removal of the matter already in combination with the soul, i.e., its partial deliverance from karmas and (7) Moks'a or complete deliverance of the soul from its Karmas.

If merit (punya) and demerit (púpa), the results produced by the varying good combinations in the case of punya, and by the varying bad combinations in the

case of papa karmas of Soul, be considered as separate principles, instead of being included, as they are here, under Asrava, there will be 9 principles.

The knowledge of these principles is acquired by means of pramanas (proofs of knowledge) and nayas (the methods of comprehending things from different standpoints). Thus nayas are essential to the acquisition of true knowledge.

In the parable of the blind men we saw that the knowledge of each of them was only partially true, and that their different and seemingly conflicting views only needed a comprehensive and all-embracing statement to be reconciled to one another. Precisely the same is the case with philosophy and religion, and the comprehensive survey of the different aspects of things presented by Jaina philosophy enables us, at once, to reconcile the seemingly hostile and irreconcilable views of all the non-Jaina doctrines of the ekanta-váda (one-sided) type.

Comprehensiveness of thought, then, is the real basis of philosophy. But since ordinary speech is ill suited to the requirements of such a system of Thought, the ácháryas had to resort to a unique system of predication to carry on their metaphysical discussions. This system, known as the Saptabhangi, is the basis of the synthetical comprehensiveness of

knowledge which is characteristic of Jainism. The Nayas give us what may be termed the analytical knowledge of things, and the Saptabbangi, literally, the seven-fold or seven-branched system of predication, enables us to sum up the results of investigation, without departing from the strict rules of Logic. To understand the basic principles of this method, it is necessary to understand the nature of predication first of all.

Predication is the statement of our conclusions in respect of things. Of all kinds of possible judgments, the affirmative and the negative are necessary for the description of things when the truth is known with certainty, since they affirm or deny the existence of a property or quality in reference to them. So far there is no difficulty involved in predication, but things assume a very different aspect when comprehensiveness of thought is aimed at, for then the results of enquiry from different standpoints have to be incorporated in one and the same judgment and at one and the same time. The greatest confusion is likely to result from the summation of affirmative and negative conclusions in one and the same judgment, unless there be a method of logical predication to avoid inconsistency of thought. To avoid this possibility of confusion, the ácháruas have laid down seven different types of predication which cover all possible cases of simple as well as complex judgments. Each of these predications begins with the word syát, (literally somehow, hence, from a particular stand point, or in a certain manner,) to avoid denying the other possible aspects. These seven kinds of predications are:—

- (1) Syádasti (exists).
- (2) Syánnásti (does not exist).
- (3) Syadasti násti (affirmation of existence from one point and of non-existence from another).
- (4) Syádavaktavya (indescribable).
- (5) Syádasti avaktavya.
- (6) Syánnásti avaktavya.
- (7) Syádasti násti avaktavya.

Of these seven kinds of predications, the first two alone are simple judgments. The rest are all complex predications, describing things from different points of view at the same time. A thing is said to be avaktavya, i.e., indescribable, when existence and non-existence are both attributed to it at one and the same time, as must be the case with pure abstractions, such as heat, cold, goodness, etc., etc. They cannot exist by themselves, that is, apart from the substances in which they inhere, and yet are capable of being mentally conceived in the abstract.

Hence, they are indescribable and unanalysable any further.

Thus, the Saptabhangi is the method of synthesis devised to express the comprehensive knowledge of things, without being inconsistent or illogical. The Nayas enable us to study the nature of things from the analytical point of view, and the Saptabhangi sums up the results of the investigation in a systematic logical way.

To conclude, the different kinds of Nayas are the instruments of analysis whereby different aspects of things are isolated and studied from different points of view, and the Saptabhangi is the method of synthesis which sums up the results of investigation in logical thought. They are both essential to avoid the common errors of the ekánta-vadins of the non-Jaina schools of philosophy and for arriving at the true nature of things. It is the philosophy of the Syad-Vada propounded, in full, for the last time. by Rhagván S'ri Mahávîra Svámi, the last of the 24 Tirthankaras, which alone is characterised by the feature of many-sidedness, the sole test of the relativity of knowledge, and which, in the words of a great American thinker, is "competent to descend into the utmost minutiæ of metaphysics and to settle all the vexed questions of abstruse speculation by a positive

method (not merely asserting na iti, na iti, not so, not so)—to settle at any rate the limits of what it is possible to determine by any method which the human mind may be rationally supposed to possess. It promises to reconcile all the conflicting schools, not by inducing any of them necessarily to abandon their favourite 'standpoints,' but by proving to them that the standpoints of all others are alike tenable, or at least, that they are representative of some aspect of truth which under some modification needs to be represented; and that the integrity of Truth consists in this very variety of its aspects, within the rational unity of an all-comprehensive and ramifying principle."

AUTHOR'S BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.

ŚRI VINAYAVIJAYA was born in a Vanika (Śrâvaka) family, in Gujarat, his father's name being Tejapâla, and his mother's Râjśri.* When and at what place he was born and when he was initiated into the Jaina Monks' order (took dîkṣâ) remain in oblivion. Notwithstanding this, from the traditions and a crop of legends that have surrounded his name, the date of his birth may be assigned to S. Y. 1670. This would make him a co-student and a co-worker of Sri Yashovijaya, who received a command for reforming the Jaina Church from Vijayasinha Sûri †. Vijayasinha Sûri who is referred to in the

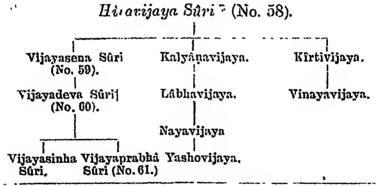
विश्वाश्चर्यद्कीर्त्तिकीर्त्तिविजयश्रीवाचकेन्द्रान्तिपद् राजश्री तनये।ऽतिनष्ट विनयः श्रीतेजपालात्मजः । काव्यं यत्किल तत्र निश्चितजगत्तत्त्वप्रदीपे।पमे संपूर्णः खलु सप्तविंशतितमः सर्गो निसर्गोऽज्वलः ॥

† Vijayasinha Sûri was born in S. Y. 1644 at Merta, and initiated into the Monks' order in S. Y. 1654. He got the title of Upûdhyâya in S. Y. 1673, became Âchârya in S. Y. 1682, and died on Âşûdha Sukla 2nd, S. Y. 1709, at Ahmedabad.

^{*} Vide a concluding verse of all the chapters of his great work 'Loka-Prakása.' viz.—

concluding verse of this book) died in S. Y. 1709, when our author must have been more than 30 years old.

From his works it is certain that Vinayavijaya's preceptor's name was Kîrtivijaya *Upâdhyâya*, who was a disciple of Hîravijaya Sûri, while Yashovijaya was the pupil of Nayavijaya whose *guru*, Labhavijaya, was a disciple of Kirtivijaya's co-pupil Kalyanavijaya, as will appear from the following list of succession of *acharyas*:—



^{*}Hîravijaya Sûri was the 58th Pontiff of Tapa Gachha from Śri Mahavira. He was born on the 9th of Margasîrşa Sukla. S. Y. 1583, at Prahlâdanapura (modern Pâlanpur), and was initiated on Kârtika Krişna 2nd of S. Y. 1596, at Pâtan. He got the title of Upâdhyâya on Mâgha Śukla 5th, at Nâradapuri, and that of Âchârya in S. Y. 1610, at Shirohi. He died at Unû. on 11th Bhâdrapada Sukla, S. Y. 1652.

[†] Vijayadeva Sûri, the 60th Pontiff, was born in S. Y. 1643. He got the title of Pandvyssa (pandit) in S. Y. 1655, and that of Acharya Sûri, in S. Y. 1656. On account of his great austerities and learning, the then Emperor Jehangir awarded him the title of 'Maha-Tapa.' He died on Aṣāḍha Sukla 11th, S. Y. 1718, at Una, near Junagadh after Vijayasinha Sûri.

Thus Vinayavijaya and Yashovijaya trace their descent from the illustrious Jainâchârya Hîravijaya Sûri who lived in the time of Akbar the Great. Hîravijaya, whose memory is preserved in the Mahâkâvya, entitled the Hîra Saubhâgya, was of the Swetâmbara sect, and is especially known for the great service he did to the cause of Jainism, by obtaining several firmâns from the Great Emperor Akbar in favour of the Jainas. One of these firmans (Royal Warrants) recognised the right of Jainas to their Tîrthas (holy places) which the Emperor made over to certain Jainas, and another prohibited the slaughter of animals during the Pajusana and on the dates held sacred by the Jaina community.

Vinayavijaya studied from his guru all the Jaina scriptures, and then asked his permission to go to Benares, well-known from ancient times as the most famous centre of learning, to study the metaphysics of the non-Jaina schools of philosophy.

Yasovijaya joined him on his journey to Benares, and they soon reached that famous city. Here they found themselves compelled to put off their Jaina-ascetic's dress because of the prejudices of Brāhmaṇas against the Jainas who were termed Nastikas (heretics or atheists). The nature of the hatred of the Brāhmaṇas for the Jainas may be judged from

the following saying which was openly taught by the Pandits:

हस्तिना ताड्यमाने।ऽपि न गच्छेऽजैनमंदिरम् ।

[Trans.—Even if one be killed by an elephant one should. not take shelter in a Jaina temple.]

Under the circumstances, no Brâhmana Pandit was expected to accept a Jaina as his pupil. Vinavijaya and his companion Yasovijaya therefore, changed their dress, and calling themselves Vinayalûl and Jasulûl respectively appeared before a learned Brâhmana who was well known for his erudition in the six famous darshanas (systems) of Hindu metaphysics. They were readily accepted as pupils, and began to pursue their studies. Yasovijaya taking a great interest in Logic and Vinayavijava in-Grammar. In due course of time, they successfully completed their study of the six darshanas and other subjects connected with philosophy. Yasovijaya and Vinayavijaya were endowed with wondrous memory, and used to astonish the peoplewith their memorizing feats. Their guru's library contained a certain book which had descended to him from his ancestors, and which was only meant to be taught to his own progeny. One day it sohappened that Jasulal was sitting by the side of his preceptor when he was giving lessons to his eldest son from that book. He noticed the embarassment. of the old Pandit in explaining a particular passage

of the text, and, being a brilliant logician himself, respectfully threw a suggestion as to the true mode of its interpretation. The guru was delighted with his pupil's intelligent explanation, and acceded to his request for a loan of the manuscript for a day. The book contained twelve hundred verses, but both Vinayalâl and Jasulâl managed, between themselves, in the short interval of 24 hours, to commit to memory the whole of it,—Jasulâl 700 verses and Vinayalâl the remaining 500.

It took Vinayavijaya and Yasovijaya twelve years to complete their course of study, at the end of which they both adopted their original Jaina ascetic's dress. Yasovijaya succeeded in winning a victory over a great disputant, who surrendered his two diplomas of Mahamahopâdhyâya and Nyâya Viśârada. Subsequently, Yasovijaya also acquired the covetous title of Nyâyâchârya* on his composing one hundred works. Yasovijaya and Vinayavijaya finally took leave of their guru and departed from Benares. They separated from one another, and travelled to different places. Vinayavijaya came to Junagadh, in Kathiawad, on pilgrimage to the holy Jaina Tîrtha, Girnar Hills, in S. Y. 1708, in which

^{*} This is borne out by the following verse at the end of the Jaina Tarka Paribhûşû:—

पूर्वं न्ययविशारदत्वविरुदं काश्यां प्रदत्तं वुधै-न्यायाचार्यपदं ततः कृतशतग्रंथस्य यस्यार्पितम् ।

year he also finished his grand and voluminous work, the Loka-prakasa. About this time he must have repaired to the seaport Dîva (Dwîpa), where he composed the 'Naya-karnikâ.' Then he went to Radhanpur, in S. Y. 1710, where he composed a commentary on Hemachandra's Grammar. called Haimalaghu-prakriyâ.

As the tradition goes, Vinayavijaya halted at Cambay for four months. At this time Cambay was a great commercial port and its Jaina Śravakas were wealthy and prosperous, firm in faith and obedient to the monks. In this town there were many Brâhmana Pandits. They often came and debated. with Vinayavijaya, when the latter would proceed with his morning sermon (Vyakhyana). On account of this. Vinayavijaya could not go on smoothly with his lecture, and the Śrâvakas found the constant interruption a source of annoyance, and felt irritated and disappointed. Vinayavijaya sent for Yasovijaya to put a stop to the disturbance. Yasovijaya came and devised a novel plan. He wrote out a versecontaining a large number of labials and affixed itto the door of the Upasraya, with a note to the effect that he who wished to debate could enter within and debate only if he could repeat that verse without allowing his lips to come together. The test of a successful fulfilment of the condition consisted in the application of red lead (sandura) to the lower

lip, so that if the upper lip received any colouring matter the candidate must be deemed to have failed in his attempt. In the morning, the sermon proceeded, and the Brahmana Pandits came as usual to carry on their debates. They read the verse and the remarks on the door, and, finding themselves unable to fulfil the condition, went away. The sermon went on without any hitch, and the Śrávakas were pleased. Subsequently, Yasovijaya, when asked by the Brahmanas to repeat his verse according to his condition successfully performed the feat, as he had acquired the proper knack of doing so by long practice. Though the matter should have ended here, Yasovijaya offered his readiness and willingness to open regular debates. defeated his adversaries in argument, and in consequence five hundred Brahmanas became converted to Jainism, in fulfilment of the condition transcribed on a copper-plate in the State assembly. (It is said that this copper-plate is still preserved in some Upåśraya temple or Bhandar at Cambay.)

Vinayavijaya passed the rainy season of S. Y. 1716 at Surat, and of S. Y. 1723 at Gandhar, in Marwar, where he finished his composition 'Sântasudhâ-rasa. He spent the *Chaumasa* (rainy season) of the *Samvata* years 1729 and 1738 at Rânder in Gujarat, and died at that place towards the end of 1738, leaving his Gujarati work 'Sripâlas Râsa'

half finished. This unfinished work was completed by Yasovijaya.*

The following is a list of some of the works written by Sri Vinayavijaya Acharya.

Sanskrita Works.

- 1. The Sukhabodhikâ.—A commentary on the well-known Kalpa-Sûtra, which is read by the Jainas during their Pajusana holidays. This was composed on Jyeştha Sukla 2nd, S. Y. 1696. It has been published by Devachanda Lâlbhâi Pustakoddhâra Fund, Javeri Bazar, Bombay.
- 2. The Loka-Prakáśa.—An original voluminous work of 20,621 verses, dealing with the Jaina view of the Universe (cosmos). The author has cited more than 700 authorities, showing that he was a voracious reader and an exact writer. The work was completed at Jîrṇadurga, (modern Junagadh, in

तेहना गुग् गावेछे गोरी, मिल मिल धोर्के थोर्केजी।

* Refer to the last prafasti of the said Rasa

सूरि हीर गुरुनी बहुकीर्त्तं, कीर्त्तिं विजय उवसायाजी।
शिष्य तास विनयविजय वर , वाचक सुगुण सोहायाजी।
विद्या विनय विवेक विचल्रण , लल्लण लिल्त देहाजी।
सोभागी गीतारथ सारथ। संगत सखर सनेहाजी।
संवत सत्तर श्रद्धत्रीसा वरसे , रिंह रांदेर चेामार्सेजी।
संवतणा श्राग्रहथी मांड्यो , रास श्रधिक उछारेंजी।
सार्ध्य सस्रशत गाथा विरची , पहोता ते सुरकोकेजी।

Kathiawad) on Jyeştha Sukla 5th, S. Y. 1708. This has been published by Pandit Hirâlâl Hansarâj of Jamnagar.

- 3. The Naya-karnikā.—A small elementary primer for those who want to understand the a, b, c of the Jaina philosophy of standpoints (nayas). This was composed before or at the end of S. Y. 1708, as appears from its concluding verse, which mentions the name of Vijayasinha Sûri, who died in S. Y. 1708, at Dwîpa (modern Diva), near Junagadh, in Kathiawad. This, with its commentary by Muni Śri Gambhîravijaya, since deceased, is published in Jaina Stotra Sangraha, Part I, by The Yasovijaya Jaina Pâthaśâlâ of Benares.
- 4. The Haima-laghu-prakriya.—A commentary on Sri Hemachandracharya's Great Grammar, entitled 'Sri Siddha-Haima Sabdanusasana, in 2,500 slokas (verses). It was completed at Rajadhanyapura, modern Radhanpur, in Gujarat. This has been published by The Jaina Dharma Prasaraka Sabha of Bhavnagar. The author has written a commentary on this very work, in 35,000 verses, which is still unpublished.
- 5. The Santasudharasal.—A treatise on the sixteen bhavna (points of moral and mental culture for meditation and concentration), including the four chief ones, maitri (friendship) and the like, and the twelve subordinate ones, anityatva (transitoriness),

etc. This with a commentary by Muni Sri Gambhî-ravijaya, since deceased, has been recently published by The Jaina Dharma Prasâraka Sabhâ of Bhâvnagar. The work was composed at the seaport town of Gandhapura (modern Gandhâr, near Cambay) in S. Y. 1723.

Gujarati Compositions.

These with the exception of the Sripala Rasa are all short poems composed by the author. The following are a few of his more important works in Gujarati:—

A prayer in glory of Dharmanatha, entitled the Laghu-upamitibhava-prapancha. The Stavana is a short allegory on this illusory world. This was composed in S. Y. 1716, at Surat.

The Stavana, embodying the significance of the five causes necessary for the accomplishment of a thing, viz., kůla, svabhůva, niyati, půrva karma, and purusártha, was composed in S. Y. 1723.

The Punyaprakâsa-stavana or Ârâdhanâ-stavana, was composed in S Y. 1729 ou Vijayâ Daśamî, in glory of the last Tîrthaukara Mahâvîra, in answer to a question 'How can the path of salvation be attained?'

The Vinaya-Vilåsa is a collection of 37 spiritual poems which are simple, sweet, and full of pathos.

The Sripâla Râsa is the author's long descriptive and narrative poetical work, which was left unfinished on account of his sudden death, in S. Y. 1738, at Rânder (in Gujarat), and was completed by his co-student, Sri Yasovijaya Upâdhyâya, as stated before. The poetry of our author can vie with that of the premier Gujarati poet, Premânandâ, who was his contemporary.

In the end, it can be said of the author that he has rendered a valuable service to the cause of Jainism by utilizing his abilities in writing useful works on its philosophy and religion in Sanskrit and Gujarati.

नयकर्णिका

NAYA-KARŅIKA.

TEXT AND TRANSLATION.

Naya-karnikā is composed of two words, nayar and karnikā. Naya means a standpoint or an aspect of viewing a thing from that standpoint or aspect. Karnikā means a pericarp, or the central point, of a flower. The thing which is to be viewed from different aspects is the pericarp or the central point, and the various standpoints from which it is viewed form the various petals surrounding the pericarp. Thus the title 'Naya-Karnikā' is fully appropriate to the subject-matter of this book. Taken as a whole, Naya-karnîkâ means a flower-which has for its pericarp, or central point, the thing to be viewed; and for its petals the various standpoints from which it is to be viewed.

Benediction and subject-matter.

वर्धमानं स्तुमः सर्वनयनद्यर्शवागमम्। संशेपतस्तदुन्नीतनयभेदानुवादतः॥१॥ Vardhamanam stumah sarvanayana—dyarnavagamam,

Sankşepatastadunnitanayabhedânuvâdatah.—1.

[वर्षमानं Shri Vardhamâna or Lord Mahâvîra the last, i.e., 24th Tirthankara, who attained nirvâna in 527 B.C. स्तुम: (we) praise; सर्व all; नय standpoint; नदी river; अर्थेव ocean; आगमं scripture; संदीपत: briefly; तद (from) it; उन्नीत culled; नयभेद various aspects; अनुवादत: transcribing].

We offer our praise to Lord Vardhamana, whose gospel is an ocean, with all kinds of nayas as so many streams flowing into it, by transcribing, in brief the various view-points culled from it (the ocean-like gospel).—1.

[This verse is in anustup metre, and the following 20 verses are also in the same metre, while the last two are in vasantatilakâ metre.]

Names of Standpoints.

नेगमः संप्रहरचेव व्यवहारज्जुंसूत्रकौ । राष्ट्रः समभिरूढेवंभूतौ चेति नयाः स्मृताः ॥ २ ॥

Naigamah Sangrahas' chaiva Vyavaharajjusû-trakau.

S'abdah Samabhir ûdhaivambhûtau cheti nayâh Smritâh—2.

निगम: the non-distinguished (standpoint); संबद्ध: the collective-generic, चैव and also, व्यवहार the practical, अत्रत्तु सूनकी and the straight-expression, यन्द्र: the verbal, सनमिक्टरेवेमूती the subtle and the such-like, चेति and that नगा: aspects, स्नृता: are spoken of.]

The standpoints are the non-distinguished (Nai-gama), the collective—generic (sangraha), the practical (v'yavahûra), the straight-expression (rijusûtra), the verbal (śabda), the subtle (samabhirûdha) and the such-like (evambhûta).

General and Specific Properties of Things.

त्र्याः सर्वेऽपि सामान्यविशेषा उभयात्मकाः । सामान्यं तत्र जात्यादि विशेषाश्च विभेदकाः ॥ ३ ॥ Artháḥ Sarvepi Sâmánya visesa Ubhayatmakaḥ, Sâmányam tatra jatyadi visesascha vibhedakab.

--3.

[याणी: objects; सर्वे all; श्रापि also; सामान्यियोपा: having general and particular properties; उमयात्मका: possessed of both; सामान्यं general properties; तल therein; जात्यादि (expressing): jâti (genus), etc., वियेपा: the particular properties; च and; विमेद्का: (are) differentiating].

All objects possess two kinds of properties, viz., (1) Sâmânya or the generalizing (general), and (2) viseşa or the differentiating (specific) properties; the general expressing the genus (jati), etc., and the specific expressing the species, differences and distinctions.

Distinction between General and Specific properties, or Illustrations of Samanya and Vis'eşa.

यवुद्धिर्घटशते भवेत्सामान्यधर्मतः । रोषाच निजं निजं लक्षयन्ति घटं जनाः ॥ ४॥ Aikyabuddhirghatasate bhavet Sâmânyadhar-matah,

Vesişâchcha nijam nijam lakşayanti ghatam janâh.—4.

[स्वयनुद्धि: recognising oneness; घटयते in each of a hundred jars; भवेत् (there) would be; सानान्यधर्मतः by means of general properties; विशेषात् by means of specific or particular properties; च and; निसं निसं one's own, as the case may be; समयन्ति distinguish; घटं a jar; सना: people].

By means of general properties in each of a hundred (hundred here means 'all') jars, one idea (that of jar-ness) is recognised, and by means of specific properties, people distinguish each individual-particular jar as their own.—4.

Explanation.—Suppose there are lying here many jars; if we look at them from the standpoint of their general properties, we know only their jar-ness which is common to all of them: but if we view them from the aspect of their differentiating properties, we notice their differences, since they are not all alike, some being large, some small, some of red colour, some of black, some belonging to A, some to B, and so on.

The Characteristics of the Non-distinguished (Naigama) Standpoint (naya).

नैगमा मन्यते वस्तु तदेतदुभयात्मकम् । निर्विशेषं न सामान्यं विशेषोऽपि न तद्विना ॥ ५ ॥ Naigamo manyate vastu tadetadubhayatmakam, Nirvikeşam na sâmanyam vikeşopi na tadvina. —5.

्टिंगमो the non-distinguished (standpoint); मन्यते regards, considers; यस्त an object, thing; तदेतद् those, aforesaid; उपयात्मकं possessed of both (specific and general properties); निविधेषं devoid of—without specific property; न not; सामान्यं the general property; निधेषो the specific property; व्यपि also; न not; तदिना without that, i.e., general property.]

The non-distinguished (naigama), regards an object as possessing both the aforesaid (general and specific) properties; (because) no particular thing in nature is possessed of a general property unaccompanied with some specific property, nor even of a specific property unaccompanied with the general one common to its class. 5

Explanation.—Naigama (नेगम = ग+एक+गम-निको गने। यस्वेति—ग=not, एक=one, गम= aspect, view, standpoint) means that which does not consider (only) one aspect, that is, which regards both the sâmânya and višeṣa. This aspect of Naigama is true, because sâmânya is not irrelative of višeṣa or vice versa. In the third verse we saw that all objects are possessed of both general and specific properties.

Characteristics of the Collective (Sangraha)
Standpoint (naya).

संग्रहो मन्यते वस्तु सामान्यात्मकमेवहि । सामान्यव्यतिरिक्तोऽस्ति न विशेषः खपुष्पवस् ॥ ६॥ Sangraho manyate vastu samanyatmakamevahi, Samanyavyatiriktosti na visesah khapuspavat. -6.

[संब्रह्म] collective standpoint; सन्यते deals with; वस्तु an object; सामान्यात्मकं possessing the general property; एवर्षि only as it were; सामान्यव्यतिरिक्तो apart from the general property; व्यक्ति is; न not; विभेष: the specific property; खुष्पवत् like a sky-flower.]

The collective (sangraha) deals with the general properties alone of an object, while recognizing that there exists no visesa (specific property) apart from sâmânya (general property), i.e., both visesa and sâmânya are co-existing and coincident. Sâmânya, devoid of visesa, is like a khapuspa (sky-flower), quite a noventity, i.e., existing "no where." (i.

Sandraha illustrated, or instances of the Collective standpoint.

विना वनस्पतिं काेऽपि निम्बाम्रादिनं दृश्यते । हस्ताद्यन्तर्भाविन्यो हि नाङ्गुलाद्यास्ततः पृथक् ॥ ७॥

Vina vanaspatim kopi nimbamradirna drisyate. Hastadyantarbhavinyo li i nanguladyastatah prithak.—7.

[बिना without; धनस्पति vegetable; क्षेत्रपि any single; निस्यासादिः A nimb tree, a mango tree and others; न not; द्यते is seen,—conceived; इस्ताह्मन्तर्भाविन्यो being included in the hands, &c.; हि in the same way—as for an example; न not; अद्गुलाह्मः the fingers, &c.; नतः from them (fingers, &c.); प्रवह separately.]

Not a single nimb, mango or any other tree is ever conceived, apart from (its general property) vegetable-ness. In the same way, fingers, etc., which are included in the idea of hands, etc., cannot be conceived of separately from the hands, etc. 7.

Explanation.—In this verse, the emphasis is on the fact that special qualities can have no existence without a substratum of general properties. No one has yet seen a mango plant which did not possess the general quality of tree-ness.

Characteristics of the practical (vyavahâra) standpoint.

विशेषात्मकमेवार्थं व्यवहारस्य मन्यते । विशेषभिन्नं सामान्यमसत्खरविषाणवत् ॥ ८॥

Viseşâtmakamevârtham vyavahârascha manyate, Viseşabhinuam sâmanyamasat kharavişanavat. —8.

[विशेषात्मकं possessing special properties; एव only; अर्थ an object; व्यवहार: the practical standpoint; च and; मन्यते takes into consideration; विशेषिक apart from the specific quality; सामान्यं general quality; अवत् false; सर्विषाणवत् like a donkey's horns]

The practical (vyavahāra) takes into consideration an object as possessing specific properties only; as the specific, apart from the general, is a nonentity like a donkey's horns. S.

Instances of the Practical standpoint.

वनस्पतिं गृहाखेति प्रोक्ते गृह्णाति काऽपि किम्। विना विशेषान्नाम्नादींस्तन्निरर्थकमेव तत्॥ ९॥

Vanaspati grihâņeti prokte grihņāti kopi kim, Vinā Visseṣānnāmrādiṃstan nirarthakameva tat.—9.

[बनस्पति vegetable; गृहाच take, bring; इति that; मोक्ते on being asked,—told; गृह्णाति brings; कार्येच anyone; किं what; विना without; विशेषान् specified; आमादीन् a mango tree, etc.; तत्; therefore; निर्थेकं vain, purposeless; व्य simply; तत् that (general quality)].

If one is asked to bring 'vegetable,' can one do so? Without the specification of particularity, e.g., mango, etc., such speech is vain. 9.

Explanation.—This is to illustrate the principle that general qualities have no existence of their own. If they did, we should have manhood, stupidity, wisdom, etc., existing apart from living beings—which is absurd.

Another Illustration.

वर्णापेण्डीपाद्छेपादिके लोकप्रयोजने । उपयोगो विशेषैः स्यात्सामान्ये न हि कहिंचित् ॥ १०॥

Vranapindîpâdalepadike lokaprayojane.

Upayogo Vísesaih syât sâmânye na hi karhichit.

[इस a wound, sore, bruise or hurt; विण्डीपादलेप a kind of

unguent; आदिने and in other such things; साक्रमयानने in the interests of the people; उपयोगे any act contributing to the fulfilment of a desired object, usefulness; विशेष: by means of the specific properties; स्यात् would be (accomplished); सामान्ये in the general property; चिह्न by no means, not at all; कहिंचित् at any time]

No wound, bruise or scratch can possibly be healed by the application of the general property of poultice-ness or ointment-ness. The healing properties only inhere in specific poultices or ointments. 10.

The Characteristics of the Straight Expression (Rijusútra naya.)

ऋजुसूत्रनये। वस्तु नातीतं नाप्यनागतम् । मन्यते केवछं किन्तु वर्तमानं तथा निजम् ॥ ११ ॥

Rijusûtranayo vastu nâtîtam nâpyanâgatam, Manyata kevalam kintu vartamânam tathâ nijam.—11.

[अरजुसून straight expression; मयो a standpoint; यस्तु an object; न not; अतीतं past; न not; अपि even; अनागतं future; मन्यते considers; केनलं solely, only; किन्तु but; वर्तगानं present; तथा and; निजं one's own, natural state.]

The straight expression (rijusûtra naya) does not trouble itself with the past nor the future aspect of a thing; it is only confined to the present and refers to the 'nijam,' i.e., the natural state. 11.

Explanation.—This standpoint does not consider

the past because of its having ended, nor the future because of its having not arisen, but solely deals with the present and natural aspect of a thing because that alone is kâryakârin, i.e., useful for the moment.

Argument as to the characteristics of the Straight Expression standpoint.

ग्रतीतेनानागतेन परस्कीयेन वस्तुना । न कार्यसिद्धिरित्येतद्सद्गगनपद्मवत् ॥ १२ ॥

श्रितीतेन with the past; अनागतेन with the future; परस्कीयेन with non-natural; बस्तुना with a thing; न not; कार्यसिद्धिः the serving of purpose; इति because; यतद् this; असद् wrong, false; गगनपद्भवत् like a sky-lotus.]

Neither the past, nor the future, nor the non-natural qualities serve any purpose. They are false; [they are like] a sky-lotus (non-entity.)—12.

Explanation.—The argument underlying the rijusûtra view point is that of immediate utility which naturally must be grounded upon the present aspect of a thing. For instance, it is of no use to a beggar in his present life if his son of a previous birth, or the would-be daughter-in-law of a future incarnation, i. e., re-birth, happens to be a ruling prince. In the same way, qualities not belonging to a thing would stand it in no good stead in the immediate concerns of life.

Modes of recognizing things (niksepas), and their bearing on the rijusûtra, and the succeeding nayas.

नामादिचतुर्ष्वेषु भावमेव च मन्यते । न नामस्थापनाद्वव्याण्येवमग्रेतना ग्रपि ॥ १३ ॥

Nâmâdichaturşveşu bhâvameva cha manyate,
Na mâmasthâpanâdravyânyevamagretanâ api.
—13.

[नाम the name; आदि and other; चतुन्तेषु among the four (nikṣepas—modes of recognizing things); भाषं the nature—real natural state; एव only—truly; च and; मन्यते considers; च not; नाम the name; स्थापना an image, form. ह्रव्याणि and the causes which bring a thing about; एवं in the same way; अग्रेतनाः the succeeding (nayas); अपि also.]

(The rijusatra naya) recognises only the real natural state of a thing out of the four, the name—nama niksepa, etc; in the same way, the succeeding nayas. 13.

Explanation.—A thing is recognised (1) by its name (nâma nikṣepa), (2) by its shape or image (sthâpanā nikṣepa), (3) by the causes which bring it about (dravya nikṣepa), or (4) by its nature, i.e., the real, natural state (bhāva nikṣepa). Neither name nor shape, nor image, nor the causal antecedents can, however, be termed the true attributes of a thing. They are all its unreal, attributed qualities. The only natural attributes (bhāva nikṣepa)

of a thing are those which really constitute its nature.

The Rijusûtra and the succeeding three nayas, viz., Sabda, Samabhirûdha and Evambhûta take cognizance of the fourth, or the bhdva nikşepa only. They only study the real natural aspect of things, and attach no importance to the unreal, attributed state, viz., name, shape—image, or causal antecedents. The Naigama, Sangraha, and Vyavahâra however, recognise all the aforesaid modes, or nikşepas.

The Characteristics and Instances of the Verbal (Sabda) standpoint.

अर्थे रान्दनयाऽनेकैः पर्यायैरेकमेव च । मन्यते कुंभकलशायटाद्येकार्थवाचकाः ॥ १४॥

Artham Sabdanayonekaih paryâyairekameva cha,

Manyate kumbhakalasaghatadyekartha vacha-kah..—14.

[आयं sense; यव्दनया the verhal standpoint; आगेती: many; पर्यायी: by synonyms; एकं one; एव only; च and; मन्यते treats; कुंन a jar; कलग a jar; घट a jar; धादि etc., स्कार्ययाचका: signifying the same sense.]

The Sabda Naya treats synonymous words as all having the same sense, for instance, kumbha, kalasa, ghata, etc., are all expressive of one and the same object (viz., a jar). 14.

Explanation.—The meaning is that the Śabda Naya does not concern itself about the difference-of synonymous words, but simply deals with them as if they were pure equivalents of one-another.

The Characteristics and Instances of the subtle (Samabhiradha) standpoint.

ब्रूते समभिरूढोऽर्थं भिन्नपर्यायभेदतः । भिन्नार्थाः कुंभकलशघटा घटपटादिवत् ॥ १५ ॥

Brûte samabhirûdhortham bhinnaparyâyabhe-dataḥ,

Bhinnarthah kumbhakalasaghatá ghaarpata-divat.—15.

्रित speaks of; समिन्द्रित the subtle standpoint; अर्थ sense; भिन्नपर्यायमेदतः by the difference in different synonyms; भिन्नपर्यः having different senses; सुंभक्तव्ययदाः the kumbha, kalasa and ghaṭa—a jar, a jug and a pitcher; घटपटादिवत् like a ghaṭa—a jar, a puta—cloth, etc.]

The Sambhiradha naya holds that, with thedifference of the words expressing the object, the significance of the object also differs: just as a jar (ghata) and a piece of cloth (pata) are different, soa jar, a pitcher and a pot (kumbha, kalaśa, and ghata, though synonyms) signify different things (according to their derivative sense: for instance, a ghata is that which makes a noise like ghat, ghat, and so on.) 15. Explanation—The meaning is that, while the S'abda naya would treat synonyms as equivalent words, the Samabhirûdha would distinguish them from one another on etymological grounds.

Argument as to the Characteristics of the subtle (Samabhirûdha) Standpoint.

ं यदि पर्यांगभेदेऽपि न भेदेा वस्तुना भवेत् । ्भिन्नपर्याययार्न स्यात् स कुंभपटयारिप ॥ १६ ॥

Yadi paryâyabhedepi na bhedo vastuno bhavet, Bhinnaparyâyayorna syât sa kumbhabaatyorapi.—16.

[यदि if; पर्यायभेदे in the different synonyms; न not; भेदा difference; वस्तुना of a thing; भनेत् (there) would be; भिन-पर्यायचाः possessing different words; न not; स्यात् (there) would be; च that (difference); कुंभपटचाः of kumbha and paṭa, i.c., a jar and a cloth; अप also.]

[For] if different synonyms (paryâyas) of a thing do not distinguish that thing, (there) can be no such (distinction) between a jar and a cloth, which have also different words (paryâyas) for them. 16.

The Characteristics of the such-like (Evambhûta) standpoint.

पक्तपर्यायाभिधेयमपि वस्तु च मन्यते ।
कार्य स्वकीयं कुर्वाणमेवंभूतनया ध्रुवम् ॥ १७ ॥
Ekaparyayahhidheyamapi vastu cha manyate.

Kûryam svakîyam kurvanamevambhûtanayo dhruvam.—17.

[रक्तवर्गयानिचेय expressed by one controvertible term; अपि only, however; यस्तु an object; सन्यते recognises; कार्य function; स्वकीय one's own, natural; कुर्वाण in the state of doing; स्वभूतनचा the such-like standpoint; भूषं verily, surely.]

Evambhûta naya (the such-like standpoint) verily recognises an object denoted by a word only when the object is in the actual state of performing its own natural function (as suggested by the derivative meaning of that word). 17.

Argument as to the Characteristics of the such-like (Evambhûta) standpoint.

यदि कार्यमकुर्वाणाऽपीष्यते तत्त्या स चेत्। तदा पटेऽपि न घटव्यपदेशः किमिष्यते ॥ १८॥

Yadi kâryamakurvâno pişyate tattayâ sa chet, 'Tadâ paţepi na ghaţavyapadesah ksmisyate.—18. [यदि if; कार्य function; अभुवांग: not doing; अप even; इच्यते is recognised; तत्त्या really; स It (object); चेत् if; तदा then; पटे in a cloth; अपि also; न not; घटन्यपदेश: an appellation of a jar; कि why; इच्यते is accepted.]

[For] if a thing be really recognized, even when it does not fulfil its function, then why can cloth be not called a jar? 18.

Explanation.—If a thing is not in the state of of performing its function, as expressed by the term at the moment of recognition, and still it.

be recognised as that thing, then even a jar can be called a cloth, though it is not in the state of discharging the function of a cloth. Etymologically, Evanbhûta means 'true in its entirety tothe word and the sense.' This means that all the qualities denoted by the word are prominent and observable: the Samabhiradha is also true to the word and the sense, but not entirely, some of the qualities being in the background or not yet realized. Similarly, the Śabda is also true to the word and the sense, but not so true as the Samabhirûdha, since it throws a larger number of qualitiesinto the background than the last-named standpoint. Thus each of these navas is purer than each preceding one, although they all belong tothe same type, more or less.

Inter relation between the said standpoints, their importance and divisions.

यथोत्तरं विशुद्धाः स्युर्नयाः सप्ताप्यमी तथा । एकैकः स्याच्छतं भेदास्ततः सप्तशताप्यमी ॥ १९ ॥

Yathottaram visuddhâh syurnayâh saptâpyami tathâ.

Ekaikalı syâchchhatam bhedâstatalı soptasap-yamî.—19.

[यथोरोर in regular order or succession, one by one; विद्वहः: pure; स्यु: would be; जयाः standpoints; उपन seven; अपि also; अमी these; तथा and; स्वैदः each of them; स्पात् would be;

असं a hundred; मेदा: divisions; ततः therefore; सम्यत seven hundred; यपि also; यापी these.]

Each succeeding standpoint of these seven nayas is purer than the preceding one: each of them has a hundred sub-divisions; therefore there are seven hundred nayas (in all). 19.

त्र्रथैवंभूतसमभिरूढयेाः शब्द्पव चेत् । अन्तर्भावस्तदा पंच नयपंचशतीभिदः॥ २०॥

Athaivambhûtasamabhirudhayoh sahda eva chet, Antarbhâvastada pancha naya panchasatîbhidah.—20,

श्रिष but, रवंमूतसमिष्डियाः of the Evimbhilta and Samabhirildha nayas; यन्द्रे in the Śabda naya; एव only; चेत् if; अप्तामीयः inclusion; तदा then; पंच five; नयपंचमतीमिदः (would be) divided into five hundred nayas]

But if we include the subtle (Samabhiradha) and such-like (Evambhata) in the verbalt (śabáa)

१ यथार्थाभिधानं शब्दः।

Of. नैगमसंत्रहव्यवहारर्जु सूत्रशब्दा नयाः॥ १॥ ३४॥

-Tattvårthådhigama Sûtra.

† Note.— From both of the above quotations, it will appear that Umāsvāti makes a mention of five nayas, including the subtle and such-like (Samabhirūdha and Evambhūta) standpoints in the verbal (śabda), and, while doing so, he gives a different name, viz.,—the suitable (Sāmprata) to what is here described as the 'Verbal' (Śabda.)

^{*} Compare with the blasya on Umásvátis's Tattvárthádhigama sútra, 1.35 saying—

standpoint, then there would be five standpoints, and the same could be divided into five hundred... 20.

द्रव्यास्तिकपर्यायास्तिकयोरन्तर्भवन्समी । ग्रादावादिचतुष्टयमन्त्येचान्त्याऽस्त्रयस्ततः ॥ २१ ॥

Dravyâstikaparyâyâstikayorantarbhavantyamî, Adâvâdichatuşţayamrntyechântyâstrayastatah.—. 21.

्रिज्यासिषपर्यायास्तिकया: in the Dravyûstika and Paryûyûstika nayas; अन्तर्भवन्ति are included; अभी these; आदी in the first, i.e., in the dravyûstika naya; आदिचतुष्ट्यं the first four; अन्त्ये in the last, i.e., in the paryûyûstika naya; च and; अन्त्या: final; तयः three (nayas); ततः therefore.]

These (seven aspects) can be included in or grouped under [two, i.e.,](1). the dravyastika (which considers the common attributes of all the dravyas, that is to say the general properties of substances) and objects) and (2) the paryayastika (which leals with the specific attributes, qualities and conditions of objects) nayas. The former of these neludes the first four, and the latter the last three. 21.

According to some Achâryas, the former includes the first three and the latter the last four.

^{*.}The dravyástika and the paryáyastika are more commonly called dravyárthika and paryáyárthik nayas:,

How are all these aspects embodied in the Jaina Philosophy?

सर्वे नया ग्रिप विरोधभृतो मिथस्ते, सम्भूय साधुसमयं भगवन् भजन्ते । भूपां इव प्रतिभटा भुवि सार्वभौम-पादाम्बुजं प्रधनयुक्तिपराजिता द्राक् ॥ २२॥

Sarve naya api virodhbnrito mithaste,
Sambhûya sâdhusamayam bhagavan bhajante;
Bhûpâ iva pratibhaṭā bhuvi sârvabhauma,
Pâḍâmbujam yaadhanayukti parâjitâ drak.—22.

[सर्वे all; नया: standpoints; ऋषि also; विरोधमृत: bearingdifference; नियः mutually; ते they; संन्य gathered together; सामुसमयं good scriptures; भगवन Oh Lord! भजन्ते worship, serve; भूषा: kings; इव like; प्रतिभटा: hostile warriors; भूवि onearth; सावेभीनपादान्युक्तं the lotus-like feet of the Sovereign-Emperor; प्रथमयुक्तिपराजिता: defeated in military warfare; द्राक् quickly.]

Oh Lord! although all standpoints differ from themselves inter se, they collectively serve your Gospel, just as on earth kings, though hostile to each other, after having been defeated in military warfare serve at the lotus-like feet of, or pay homage to, the Sovereign-Emperor. 22.

^{*} This verse is in the Vasanta-tilakâ metre.

Conclusion.

इत्यं नयार्थकवचःकुसुमैजिनेन्दु-र्वारोऽचितः सविनयं विनयाभिधेन। श्रीद्वीपबंदरवरे विजयादिदेव-

सूरीशितुर्विजयसिंहगुरोश्च तुष्टरै ॥ २३॥*

Ittham nayarthakavachahkusumairjinendur, Virorchitah savinayam Vinayabhidhena;

Sri Dvîpahandaravare Vijayâdideva Sûrîsitur-; vijayasinhaguroścha tustyai.—23:

्रत्यं thus; नवार्यकवच:कुसुनै: by means of flowers, in the form of words, explaining the significance of nayas (standpoints); जिनेन्द्र: the moon among the Jinas (conquerors) or kevalins, the omniscient ones; बोर: the Lord Mahavira; अचितः worshipped; स्विनयं with modesty; विनयानियेन by (me), named' Vinayavijaya); श्रीद्वीपवंदरवरे in the beautiful auspicious sear port of Dvipa, the modern Diva; विजयादिद्वपुरीचितः of the disciple of Vijaya-deva Sûri; विजयसिंहगुनै: of the preceptor, Vijayasinha; तुष्ट्रने for the satisfaction.]

Thus the Lord Mahâvîra—the moon among the Jinas or Kevalins—was, with modesty, worshipped by means of flowers, in the form of words, explaining the significance of nayas (standpoints) by me, named Vinayavijaya, in order to satisfy the Guru (preceptor) Vijayasinha, a disciple of Vijayadeva Sûri, in the beautiful, auspicious seaport town of Dvîpa (the present Diva in Kathiawad). 23.

^{*} This verse is also in the Vasanta-tilakâ metre.

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